

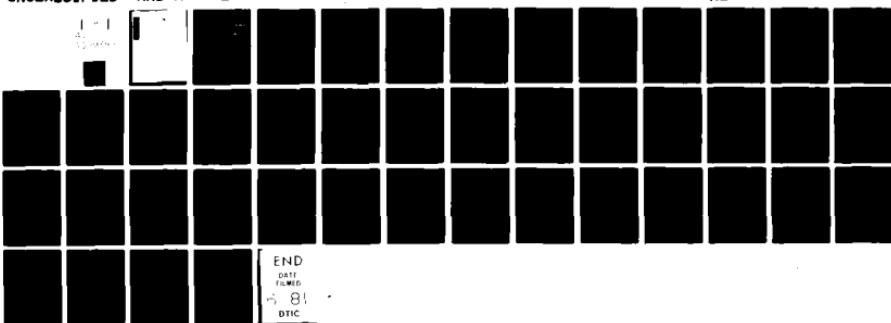
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DIFFUSION OF SMALL-SCALE DENSITY IRREGULARITIES DURING EQUATORI--ETC(U)
MAY 81 J D HUBA, S L OSSAKOW
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20. Abstract (Continued)

~~few minutes~~ $\leq \tau \leq$ few hours. On the other hand, classical diffusion is much too slow a process to be important. However, anomalous diffusion is unable to diffuse large-scale irregularities, i.e., those with scale lengths greater than a kilometer, on the time scales $\tau \approx$ few hours and another mechanism must occur to smooth out these irregularities, e.g., shorting out to the E region.

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CONTENTS

I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. THEORY	5
III. ANOMALOUS DIFFUSION	8
IV. NUMERICAL RESULTS	10
A. Classical Diffusion	11
B. Anomalous Diffusion	13
V. APPLICATION TO EQUATORIAL SPREAD F	14
VI. CONCLUSION	16
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	18
REFERENCES	19
APPENDIX	30

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DIFFUSION OF SMALL-SCALE DENSITY IRREGULARITIES DURING EQUATORIAL SPREAD F

I. INTRODUCTION

Over the past few years a considerable amount of effort has been directed at understanding the physical processes associated with equatorial spread F. Major advances have been made both experimentally (Kelley et al., 1976; Woodman and La Hoz, 1976; McClure et al., 1977; Huba et al., 1978; Weber et al., 1978; Tsunoda and Towle, 1979; Towle, 1980; Tsunoda, 1980, Szuszczewicz et al., 1980; Tsunoda, 1981; Rino et al., 1981; Keskinen et al., 1981) and theoretically (Haerendel, 1974; Hudson and Kennel, 1975; Scannapieco and Ossakow, 1976; Chaturvedi and Ossakow, 1977; Ott, 1978; Ossakow and Chaturvedi, 1978; Costa and Kelley, 1978a,b; Huba et al., 1978; Ossakow et al., 1979; Keskinen et al., 1980; Zalesak and Ossakow, 1980; Sperling and Goldman, 1980; Keskinen et al., 1981; Huba and Ossakow, 1981a,b; for a complete review through 1980, see Ossakow, 1981) in this area. Presently, much of the research on spread F is focussed on small-scale irregularities; that is density fluctuations occurring on scale lengths less than several hundred meters. A brief overview of this work is as follows.

The first indication of small-scale density fluctuations being present during equatorial spread F is the 3 m backscatter radar measurements made at Jicamarca in the early seventies (Farley et al., 1970). Since the mean ion gyro-radius is ~ 4 m, these observations show that turbulence exists on scale lengths smaller than the ion gyro-radius. Moreover, power spectral density and radar backscatter measurements (Woodman and Basu, 1978)

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suggest that the actual observed 3 m radar backscatter power is substantially below (3-4 orders of magnitude) the extrapolated in situ k^{-2} spectrum from longer wavelengths (i.e., $\gtrsim 100$ m). Thus, the 3 m irregularities do not appear to be caused by a turbulent cascade of energy from smaller wave numbers. Recently, backscatter measurements have been made using the ALTAIR (Huba et al., 1978; Towle, 1980; Tsunoda and Towle, 1979; Tsunoda, 1981) and TRADEX (Tsunoda, 1980) radar systems at Kwajalein and have found fluctuations at 1 m, 36 cm, and 11 cm. It appears then that turbulence even exists at wavelengths comparable to the mean electron gyro-radius (~ 3 cm).

In situ satellite (McClure et al., 1977) and rocket (Kelley et al., 1976; Morse et al., 1977; Szuszczewicz et al., 1980) experiments have also been performed during equatorial spread F. The major result relevant to the small-scale irregularities is the observation of steep plasma density gradients (Costa and Kelley, 1978a; Kelley et al., 1981; Szuszczewicz, private communication, 1980). These sharp density gradients presumably arise from the nonlinear development of plasma macroinstabilities (e.g., Rayleigh-Taylor). Density gradient scale lengths have been observed as small as 30 m, although typically they are $\gtrsim 75$ m. Also, correlative studies indicate that the strongest radar backscatter signals coincide with the walls of plasma bubbles, i.e., regions of steep density gradients (Szuszczewicz et al., 1980; Tsunoda, 1981). Based on these observations, the most plausible explanation for the small-scale irregularities is the excitation of drift waves. In the wavelength regime $kr_{Li} \lesssim 1$ (r_{Li} is the near ion gyro-radius), which corresponds to scale-sizes greater

than 25 m, the universal drift (collisionless; Costa and Kelley, 1978a,b), or drift dissipative (collisional; Goldman and Sperling, 1980; Huba and Ossakow, 1979a) instabilities may be operative depending upon the physical parameters (e.g., collision frequencies). However, at wavelengths corresponding to the 3 m irregularities, ion viscous damping prevents the linear excitation of these instabilities for typical spread F conditions (Huba and Ossakow, 1979a). It has been suggested that these irregularities may be generated via a parametric process driven by a large-amplitude, long wavelength mode (Huba and Ossakow, 1979a). On the other hand, the generation of the 1 m, 36 cm and 11 cm irregularities are probably due to the lower-hybrid-drift instability (or possibly the drift cyclotron instability) which exists in the regime $kr_{Le} \lesssim 1$, where r_{Le} is the mean electron gyro-radius (Huba et al., 1978; Huba and Ossakow, 1979b; Huba and Ossakow, 1981a,b)

A question naturally arises: what is the influence of the drift wave turbulence on the evolution of the plasma? Laboratory experiments indicate that the dominant effect is anomalous diffusion of plasma across the magnetic field to smooth out density gradients. That is, particles interact with the collective electric fields associated with the instability and are able to scatter across field lines. Thus, in general, drift instabilities act to destroy the free energy source which drive them, i.e., the density gradients. Of course, the ionospheric F region is not collisionless and the classical electron-ion collision frequency can be significant (i.e., $v_{cl} / \Omega_i \sim 1-5$ where v_{cl} is the classical

electron-ion frequency and Ω_i is the ion gyro-frequency) depending on the value of the density. Coulomb collisions may also be important in the cross-field diffusion of plasma. Collisions with neutral particles also occur but are less frequent than electron-ion collisions at altitudes above 300 km.

Observationally, diffusion appears to be the dominant mechanism which smooths out the steep density gradients; those such that $L_n \lesssim$ several hundred meters where L_n is the density gradient scale length. By this we mean the following. In the hierarchy of small-scale irregularities responsible for the radar backscatter measurements, the smaller the irregularity size, the steeper the density gradient scale length required to support it. Very sharp density gradients ($L_n \lesssim 100$ m) are necessary to excite the lower-hybrid-drift instability which is responsible for the 1 m, 36 cm, and 11 cm irregularities. On the other hand, weaker density gradients ($L_n \gtrsim 100$ m) can drive the longer wavelengths modes ($kr_{Li} \lesssim 1$) which are probably necessary to generate the 3 m irregularities. Since the time scale associated with a diffusion process is $\tau_D \sim \lambda^2/D$ (λ is a scale length and D is the diffusion coefficient), the shortest density gradient scale lengths diffuse away first. Thus, one would expect the smallest scale irregularities to disappear first in the decay phase of equatorial spread F and this, in fact, seems to be the case (Basu et al., 1978; Basu et al., 1980).

The purpose of this paper is to examine both classical and anomalous diffusion processes for equatorial spread F conditions. As such, we will neglect all driving forces, which generate

equatorial spread F irregularities, and consider the pure diffusive decay of such irregularities. We focus on the steeper density gradient scale lengths (i.e., $L_n \lesssim$ several hundred meters), since diffusion is much too slow to be important in the evolution of the large-scale irregularities ($L_n \gtrsim 1$ km). Our main conclusion is that anomalous diffusion is the dominant diffusion mechanism for spread F.

The scheme of the paper is as follows. In the next section we present the diffusion equation and a discussion of the diffusion coefficients considered. For the anomalous diffusion coefficient we base our analysis on the universal drift instability. In Section III we discuss this choice of the anomalous diffusion coefficient. Section IV contains the results of a numerical analysis of the diffusion equation for both classical and anomalous diffusion coefficients. In the final section we apply our results to equatorial spread F. We also present similarity solutions to the diffusion equation in the Appendix.

II THEORY

We consider the problem of cross-field diffusion of plasma in a low β plasma ($\beta \ll 1$, where $\beta = 8\pi n(T_e + T_i)/B^2$). The one-dimensional diffusion equation can be written as

$$\frac{\partial n}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(D \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \right) \quad (1)$$

where [Perkins et al., 1973]

$$D = v_{ei} \frac{\beta}{2} \frac{c^2}{\omega_{pe}^2} \quad (2)$$

ν_{ei} is the electron-ion collision frequency (either classical or anomalous) and $\omega_{pe} = (4\pi n e^2 / m_e)^{1/2}$ is the electron plasma frequency. Note that we assume a one-dimensional slab geometry which is adequate for small-scale spread F irregularities. The one dimensionality simplifies the analysis, of course, but it is a reasonable assumption given that the irregularities during ESF are generated by steep gradients, e.g., the walls of bubbles. Also, we assume $T_e = T_i$ and have neglected electron-neutral collisions.

We choose the following collision frequencies for our analysis:

$$\text{Classical: } \nu_{ei} = \nu_{cl} = (\lambda_c / 3.5 \times 10^5) (n_e / T_e)^{3/2} \text{ sec}^{-1} \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Anomalous: } \nu_{ei} = \nu_{an} = (2\pi/9) |\epsilon_n r_{Li}| \Omega_e \quad (4)$$

In Equations (3) and (4) λ_c is the Coulomb logarithm ($\lambda_c = 23.4 - 1.15 \log n_e + 3.45 \log T_e$), $\epsilon_n = |d \ln n / d x|^{-1} = 1 / L_n$ where L_n is the density gradient scale length, r_{Li} is the mean ion gyro-radius, Ω_e is the electron gyro-frequency, n_e is in cm^{-3} and T_e is in eV. The anomalous collision frequency used is based upon the anomalous transport properties associated with the universal drift instability (Gary, 1980). We discuss this choice shortly. These collision frequencies lead to the following diffusion coefficients:

$$\text{Classical: } D = D_{cl} = v_{cl}^0 \rho_{es}^2 (n/n_o) \quad (5)$$

$$\text{Anomalous: } D = D_{an} = \frac{4\pi}{9} |\epsilon_n r_{Li}| \rho_{es}^2 \Omega_e \quad (6)$$

where $\rho_{es} = [(T_e/T_i)/m_e]^{1/2}/\Omega_e$ is an effective electron gyro-radius, n_o is a normalization density and $v_{cl}^0 = v_{cl} (n_e = n_o)$.

From Eqs. (5)-(7) it is evident that

$$\frac{D_{cl}}{D_{an}} \sim \frac{v_{cl}^0}{\Omega_e} |\epsilon_n r_{Li}|^{-1} \quad (7)$$

Thus, for typical spread F conditions it is found that $D_{cl} \ll D_{an}$ and one expects anomalous diffusion to dominate over classical diffusion.

We finally substitute Eqs. (5)-(7) into Eq. (1) and arrive at the following diffusion equations:

$$\text{Classical: } \frac{\partial n}{\partial t} = v_{cl}^0 \rho_{es}^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{n}{n_o} \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \right) \quad (8)$$

$$\text{Anomalous: } \frac{\partial n}{\partial t} = \frac{4\pi}{9} \Omega_e \rho_{es}^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(|\epsilon_n r_{Li}| \frac{\partial n}{\partial x} \right) \quad (9)$$

We now transform to dimensionless variables and obtain

$$\text{Classical: } \frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial \tilde{\tau}_{cl}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(\tilde{n} \frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial s} \right) \quad (10)$$

$$\tilde{n} = n/n_0; s = x/\lambda; \tau_{cl} = (\rho_{es}^2/\lambda^2) (\frac{\circ}{\tau_{cl}})$$

$$\text{Anomalous: } \frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial \tau_{an}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(\left| \frac{1}{\tilde{n}} \frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial s} \right| \frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial s} \right) \quad (11)$$

$$\tilde{n} = n/n_0; s = x/\lambda; \tau_{an} = \frac{4\pi}{9} \frac{\rho_{es}^2}{\lambda^2} \frac{r_{Li}}{\lambda} (\Omega_e t)$$

Clearly, Eqs. (10) and (11) are non-linear partial differential equations. We solve them numerically as initial value problems in Section IV. They also possess similarity solutions which offer some insight into the scaling of diffusion process. We discuss these solutions in the Appendix. However, we now discuss our choice of the anomalous diffusion coefficient.

III. ANOMALOUS DIFFUSION

As mentioned earlier, the collective electric fields associated with a plasma instability driven by a density gradient can cause particles to be scattered across magnetic field lines, which leads to anomalous diffusion of plasma. This process can eventually smooth out the density gradient and suppress the instability. Several estimates of the anomalous diffusion coefficient for this phenomenon have been given based upon a variety of physical arguments. Perhaps the best known is

$$D_{an} \lesssim \gamma/k_{\perp}^2 \quad (12)$$

which is derived heuristically by Kadomtsev (1965) for a strongly turbulent plasma (i.e., $\gamma \sim \omega_r$ where $\omega = \omega_r + i\gamma$).

More sophisticated derivations of this relationship have been presented although there are criticisms of this estimate.

Nevertheless, Eq. (12) is used frequently, primarily because of its simplicity.

An alternative procedure to estimate the anomalous diffusion coefficient is based upon quasi-linear theory. Second-order Vlasov theory is used to define an anomalous collision frequency which can then be determined from the linear properties of the mode and the saturation energy of the instability. The diffusion coefficient is then found from Eq. (2).

In this paper we opt for the second approach and base our analysis on the universal drift instability, i.e., collisionless drift instability. (It should be noted that Kelley et al., 1981, have suggested that collisionless drift mode waves are the most likely candidate for the observed electric field and density fluctuation spectra in the 10-100 m regime). The details of this method are outlined by Gary (1980) and we do not reproduce them here. However, several comments should be made. First, the estimate of D_{an} given by Eq. (7) is, in fact, comparable to that of Eq. (12). Second, Eq. (7) explicitly contains the density gradient which is consistent with the notion that diffusion occurs in regions that are unstable. This dependence on L_n leads to the nonlinearity of the diffusion equation. Finally, other instabilities, such as the drift dissipative (collisional drift instability) (Goldman and Sperling, 1979) or the lower-hybrid-drift instability, could also be relevant. Whether the universal drift instability is excited depends upon the classical electron-ion collision frequency v_{cl} , which, in turn, depends

upon the density. Typically, $v_{ci}/\Omega_i \sim 0.8-5$ for electron density in the range $10^4 - 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. For unstable modes in the regime $kr_{Li} \lesssim 1$ it is found that the drift instability is neither purely collisionless, nor purely collisional (Huba and Ossakow, 1979a). Also estimates of the diffusion coefficient associated with the drift dissipative instability are comparable to that of the universal drift instability (Kadomtsev, 1965). Thus, although collisions affect the universal drift instability for typical spread F conditions, use of the anomalous diffusion coefficient associated with this mode is justified since it is qualitatively accurate (i.e., $D \propto L_n^{-1}$) and is quantitatively accurate to within a factor of 2 or 3. On the other hand, the anomalous diffusion coefficient of the lower-hybrid-drift instability is substantially smaller than that of the universal drift instability and can be neglected (Gary, 1980).

IV. NUMERICAL RESULTS

We solve Eqs. (10) and (11) numerically as an initial value problem using a leap-frog scheme for the temporal variation and a fourth-order, finite difference scheme for the spatial variation. We choose as the initial density profile

$$\tilde{n}(s, \tau=0) = (1-\varepsilon)^{-1} [1 + \varepsilon \tanh s] \quad (13)$$

where $0 \leq \varepsilon < 1$, $s = x/\lambda$, and $\tilde{n} = n(s)/n(s=-\infty)$. Here, ε determines the magnitude of the density change across the boundary layer λ . The boundary condition is $\partial n / \partial s = 0$ at the boundaries (i.e., $|s| \gg 1$) and $n(|s| \rightarrow \infty, \tau) = n(|s| \rightarrow \infty, 0)$. We choose Δt

sufficiently small so that the Courant-Levy condition is satisfied to prevent numerical instability. The grid size Δs is varied to insure that an asymptotic solution is obtained as $\Delta s \rightarrow 0$. For the results presented below we choose $\epsilon = 0.9$ so that the density changes approximately an order of magnitude across the boundary layer λ . For different values of ϵ , the results remain qualitatively the same although quantitative changes occur. We also point out that λ is a constant which characterizes the initial width of the boundary layer. However, λ is not the same as the scale length of the density gradient L_n . The density gradient scale length is defined by $L_n = \lambda [d \ln n/ds]^{-1}$ and varies across the boundary layer. It is the density gradient scale length L_n that is critical to the excitation of drift instabilities and not λ .

A. Classical Diffusion

We expand Eq. (10) to obtain

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial \tau_{cl}} = \left(\frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial s} \right)^2 + \tilde{n} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{n}}{\partial s^2} \quad (14)$$

where $\tau_{cl} = v_{cl}^0 t (\rho_{es}^2/\lambda^2)$. The solution to this equation is shown in Figure 1 which plots $\tilde{n}(s, \tau)$ vs. s at times $\tau_{cl} = 0.0, 0.2$, and 0.4 . As is expected, the width of the boundary layer is increasing with time. Note that diffusion is occurring more rapidly in the region $s > 0$ than the region $s < 0$. This occurs because of the density dependence of the diffusion coefficient.

Since $D_{cl} \propto n$ and the density is greater for $s>0$ than $s<0$, the diffusion coefficient is larger for $s>0$ and faster diffusion takes place in this region.

In figures 2a and 2b, we plot the spatial and temporal variation of the inverse density gradient scale length. In Figures 2a we show λ/L_n vs. s (where $\lambda/L_n = (1/n) \partial n/\partial s$) for $\tau_{cl} = 0.0, 0.2$ and 0.4 . The shortest density gradient scale lengths exist in the region $s<0$ due to the $(1/n)$ dependence of L_n^{-1} . However, it is interesting to note that the maximum inverse gradient scale length actually increases during the initial evolution of the density profile. This is better shown in figure 2b, which plots $(\lambda/L_n)_{\max}$ vs. τ_{cl} . The inverse gradient scale length increases $\sim 20\%$ in a time $\tau_{cl} \sim 0.06$. After this time it decreases monotonically.

The reason for the initial steepening of the density profile can be understood as follows. From Eq. (14) we find that

$$\hat{n}(s, \tau + \Delta\tau) \sim \hat{n}(s, \tau) + \Delta\tau \left[(\partial \hat{n}/\partial s)^2 + \hat{n} \partial^2 \hat{n}/\partial s^2 \right] \quad (15)$$

for $\Delta\tau \ll \tau$. A portion of the initial profile $\hat{n}(s, \tau)$ is shown in Figure 3 by the solid line (not drawn to scale), and we have isolated 3 points (s_0, s_1, s_2) . Note that $(\partial \hat{n}/\partial s)^2 > 0$ and $(\partial^2 \hat{n}/\partial s^2) > 0$ for the region shown so that both terms in the brackets of Eq. (15) initially tend to increase the density for $s_0 < s < s_2$. At $s=s_1$ the density increases an amount $\Delta \hat{n}_1$ and at $s=s_2$ the density increases amount $\Delta \hat{n}_2$, in a time $\Delta\tau$. However, $\Delta \hat{n}_2 > \Delta \hat{n}_1$ since $(\partial \hat{n}/\partial s)_{s_2} > (\partial \hat{n}/\partial s)_{s_1}$, and $\hat{n} > \hat{n}_1$. This can be shown easily if we take $\hat{n} \sim s^2$ in the region $s_0 < s < s_2$.

Physically, since $D \propto n$, the diffusion coefficient is larger at s_2 than s_1 and more particles diffuse to s_2 from $s > s_2$ than to s_1 from $s > s_1$. Thus, a steepening of the density profile occurs. This process continues until $\partial^2 \tilde{n} / \partial s^2 \leq 0$ at $s = s_2$ so that $\Delta \tilde{n}_1 > \Delta \tilde{n}_2$. This can be seen by noting the evolution of \tilde{n} and (λ/L_n) at $s = s_1$ in Figures 1 and 2a. At $\tau = 0.2$ the density profile has steepened (i.e., λ/L_n has increased from its value at $\tau = 0.0$) and $\partial^2 \tilde{n} / \partial s^2 > 0$. However, at $\tau = 0.4$ the profile has become less steep (i.e., λ/L_n has decreased from its value at $\tau = 0.2$) and $\partial^2 \tilde{n} / \partial s^2 < 0$.

B. Anomalous Diffusion

We rewrite Eq. (11) as

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial \tau}_{an} = \left| \frac{1}{\tilde{n}} \frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial s} \right| \left[-\frac{1}{\tilde{n}} \left(\frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial s} \right)^2 + 2 \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{n}}{\partial s^2} \right] \quad (16)$$

where $\tau_{an} = (4\pi/9)(\rho_{es}^2/\lambda^2)(r_{Li}/\lambda) \Omega_e t$. Note the explicit dependence on λ/L_n so that diffusion only occurs in regions of the plasma density gradient (i.e., only the regions which can support drift waves). The temporal evolution of the initial profile $n(s, \tau=0)$ is shown in Figure 4 for times $\tau_{an} = 0.0, 1.0$, and 2.0 . In contrast to the classical diffusion process, the largest amount of diffusion is occurring in the region $s < 0$. This is simply due to the fact that D_{an} is largest in this region. The spatial and temporal evolutions of (λ/L_n) are shown in Figures 5a and 5b. In Figure 5a, it is clear that (λ/L_n) is more pervasive for $s < 0$ than $s > 0$. Also the maximum inverse gradient

scale length is decreasing in time. This is shown in Figure 5b, which indicates that $(\lambda/L_n)_{\max}$ decreases monotonically in time and has decreased by $\geq 50\%$ during the time period considered. This result is consistent with the notion that the effect of the drift instability is to smooth out the plasma density gradient.

V. APPLICATION TO EQUATORIAL SPREAD F

It has been shown that both classical and anomalous diffusion processes tend to smooth out density gradients. The question remains as to which process dominates during equatorial spread F. The key parameter which can answer this question is the time scale of each process. In Table I we contrast the classical and anomalous diffusion time scales for parameters typical of equatorial spread F. We remind the reader that

$$\text{Classical: } t_{cl} = (\lambda^2/\rho_{es}^2) \tau_{cl}^0/v_{cl}^0 \quad (17)$$

$$\text{Anomalous: } t_{an} = (9/4\pi) (\lambda^2/\rho_{es}^2) (\lambda/r_{Li}) \tau_{an}/\Omega_e \quad (18)$$

where $v_{cl}^0 = v_{cl} (n(s=\infty))$, $\rho_{es}^2 = (T_e + T_i)/m_e \Omega_e^2$, $r_{Li} = (T_i/m_i)^{1/2} n_i$, $\Omega_e = eB_0/m_e$ and λ is the initial scale length. We choose $T_e = T_i = 0.1$ eV, $B = 0.3$ G, $n(s=\infty) = 10^5$ cm $^{-3}$ and consider an O $^+$ plasma. For these parameters we find that $\rho_{es} = 3.5$ cm, $r_{Li} = 4.3$ m, $v_{cl}^0 = 130$ sec $^{-1}$ and $\Omega_e = 5.3 \times 10^6$ sec $^{-1}$. The time scales Eqs. (17) and (18) are shown in Table I for several initial scale lengths, $\lambda = 50$ m, 100 m, 200 m, and 500 m. The

corresponding minimum initial density gradient scale lengths are $L_n = 40$ m, 80 m, 160 m, and 400 m where $L_n = (d\ln n/dx)^{-1}$. It should be noted immediately from Table I that the time scale for the classical diffusion process is hours while that for the anomalous diffusion process is minutes. As anticipated from Eq. (7), classical diffusion is a much slower process than anomalous diffusion for the F region ionospheric plasma. Moreover, since the initial tendency of classical diffusion is to steepen the density profile, at least an hour passes before the density gradient begins to weaken for the situation in Table I. On the other hand, the action of the anomalous diffusion process is to always smooth out the density gradient. For initially steep gradients ($L_n \lesssim 100$ m), wave turbulence can double their scale lengths in several minutes ($t \lesssim 5$ min). However, several hours are needed to diffuse density profiles to scale lengths on the order of a kilometer. In order to significantly diffuse density gradient scale lengths greater than a kilometer, many hours are required ($\gtrsim 8$ hrs.) since $t_{an} \propto \lambda^3$.

There is experimental evidence that suggests steep density gradients ($L_n \lesssim 100$ m) relax in a time $\lesssim 5$ minutes. Szuszczewicz et al. (1980) has observed intense 1 m backscatter from the ALTAIR radar at Kwajalein during the decay phase of equatorial spread F. The most intense backscatter signal appears to decay away on the time scale $\lesssim 5$ minutes. Presumably, very sharp density gradients exist to produce the 1 m density fluctuations via lower-hybrid-drift instability ($L_n \lesssim 100$ m). Since anomalous diffusion can smooth out the sharp density gradients on this time scale, then it is

likely that the lower-hybrid-drift mode is also suppressed on this time scale. This would cause the 1 m backscatter signals to weaken considerably, consistent with observations. Also, as indicated earlier, in the decay phase of equatorial spread F, the smallest density irregularity scale-sizes disappear first, (Basu et al., 1978; Basu, 1980), i.e., 36 cm backscatter fades before the 1 m backscatter, the 1 m backscatter fades before the 3 m backscatter, and so on, which is also consistent with an anomalous diffusion process due to drift waves since $t_{an} \propto \lambda^3$. On the other hand, large scale density irregularities ($L_n \gtrsim 1 \text{ km}$) are observed to decay in several hours (Basu et al., 1980; Aarons et al., 1980) and this process cannot be explained by diffusion, even anomalous diffusion.

VI. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper is to examine the diffusion of density irregularities during equatorial spread F. We have considered both classical and anomalous diffusion processes. A major assumption in our analysis is that any driving mechanism which produces the density irregularities ($L_n \lesssim$ several hundred meters) has ceased. Presumably the small-scale irregularities are generated nonlinearly from a macroinstability (e.g., Rayleigh-Taylor). Thus, we limit our attention to the decay phase of equatorial spread F.

Experimentally, diffusion seems to be the dominant process which smooths out sharp density gradients ($L_n \lesssim$ several hundred meters). This is based on the fact that the diffusion time is

proportional to some power of the diffusion length [Eqs. (17) and (18)]. Thus, the shorter density gradient scale lengths diffuse away before the longer ones. Observationally this is suggested by the order of the decay of radar backscatter signals (i.e., the shortest ones fade away first) which are due to drift wave turbulence. Also the time scale associated with this process is of the order of minutes.

Based on our analysis, we find that an anomalous diffusion process is consistent with these observations while classical diffusion is much too slow. The anomalous diffusion is based upon drift wave turbulence presumed to exist at wavelengths such that $k_r L_i \sim 1$. We have considered an explicit model for the anomalous diffusion coefficient based upon the collisionless universal drift instability. Although collisions probably modify the dispersive properties of the mode, the anomalous diffusion coefficient is not expected to be significantly different (neither qualitatively nor quantitatively). On the other hand, diffusion of large scale irregularities ($\lambda \gtrsim 1$ km) does not seem possible since the time scale associated with this process is many hours ($\gtrsim 8$ hrs.). Another mechanism must occur to smooth out these irregularities, e.g., shorting out to the E region (which continuously builds up in the morning hours).

A possible scenario is that anomalous diffusion causes the gradient scale lengths L_n (\lesssim several hundred meters, which drive the radar backscatter observed irregularities ($\lesssim 3$ m), to disappear on time scales of the order of minutes. Radar backscatter observed irregularities ($\lesssim 3$ m), themselves without the driving

gradient scale lengths, can disappear by either classical or anomalous diffusion. Scintillation causing irregularities (> 1 km) cannot decay by either classical or anomalous diffusion because it requires too much time (> 8 hrs.). However, these long wavelengths can couple effectively via the high conductivity along the geomagnetic field, to lower regions (i.e., E regions) of the ionosphere (both north and south of the equator). As these E regions build up conductivity they short out the polarization electric field associated with the long wavelength irregularities and so short out the irregularities. The time scale for the conductivity buildup would be shorter than the time required for these long wavelengths to disappear by diffusion.

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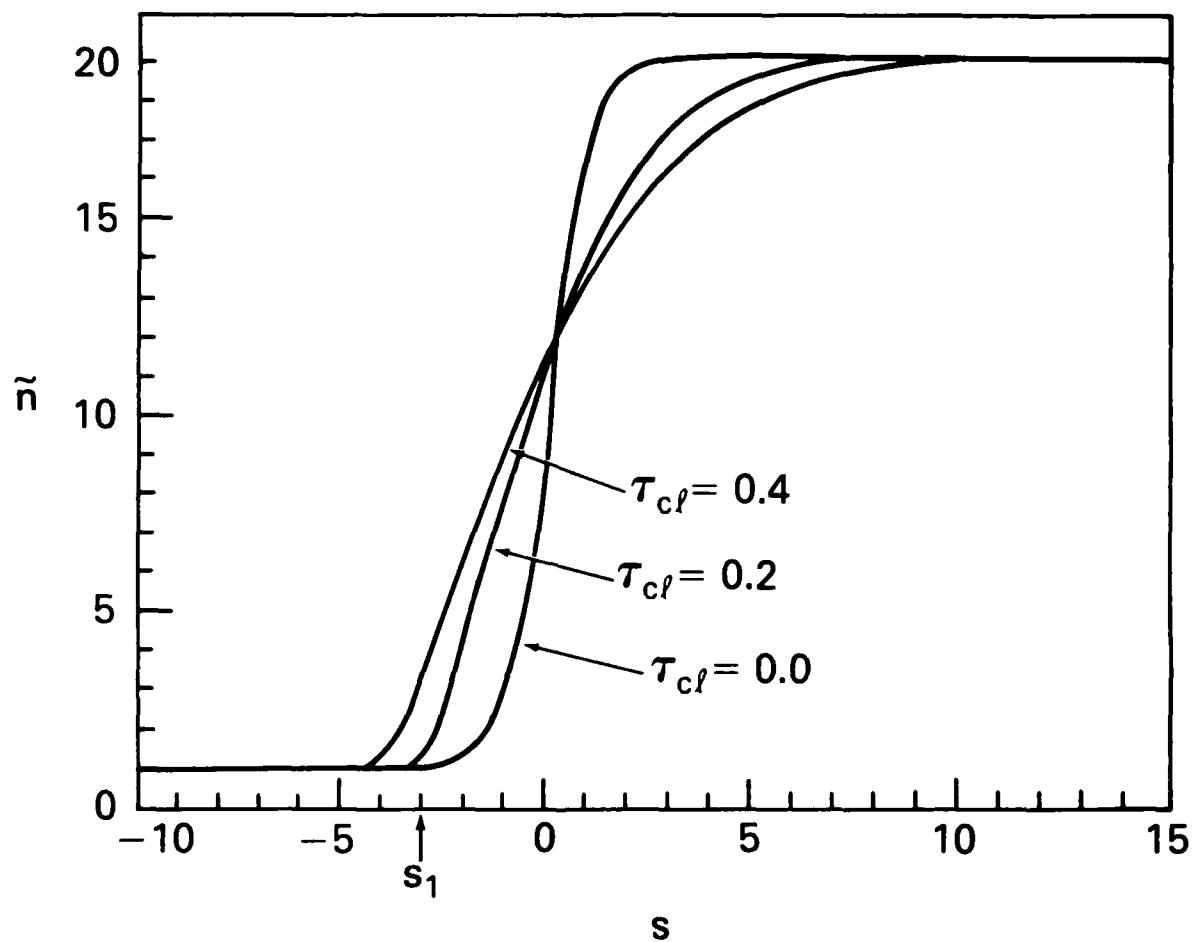


Fig. 1 — Classical diffusion process showing $\tilde{n}(s, \tau)$ vs. s for $\tau_{c\ell} = 0.0, 0.2, 0.4$

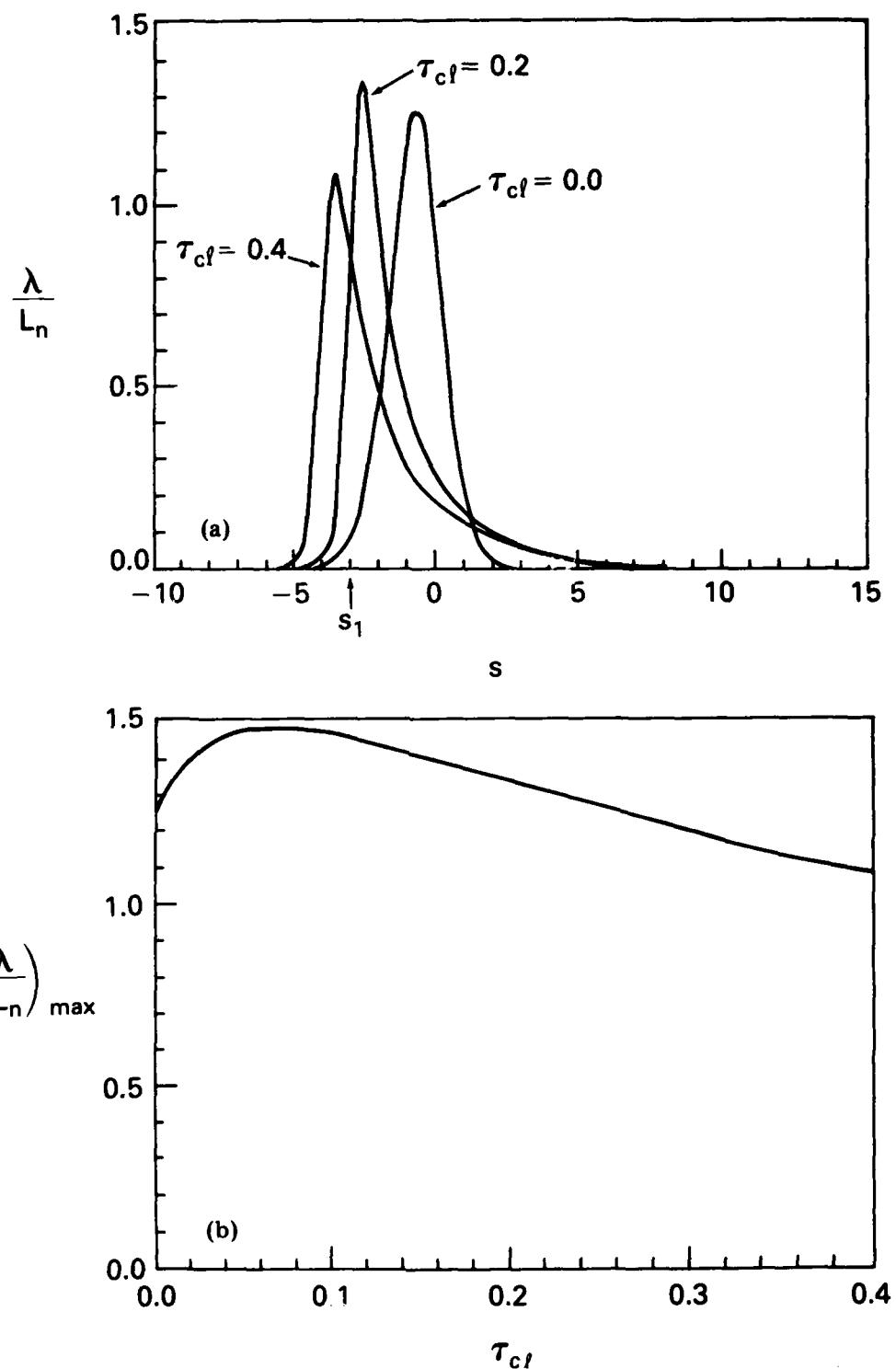


Fig. 2 — Spatial and temporal evolution of λ/L_n , the inverse scale length of the density gradient, for a classical diffusion process. (a) Spatial evolution of λ/L_n vs. s . (b) Temporal evolution of maximum inverse gradient scale length $(\lambda/L_n)_{\max}$.

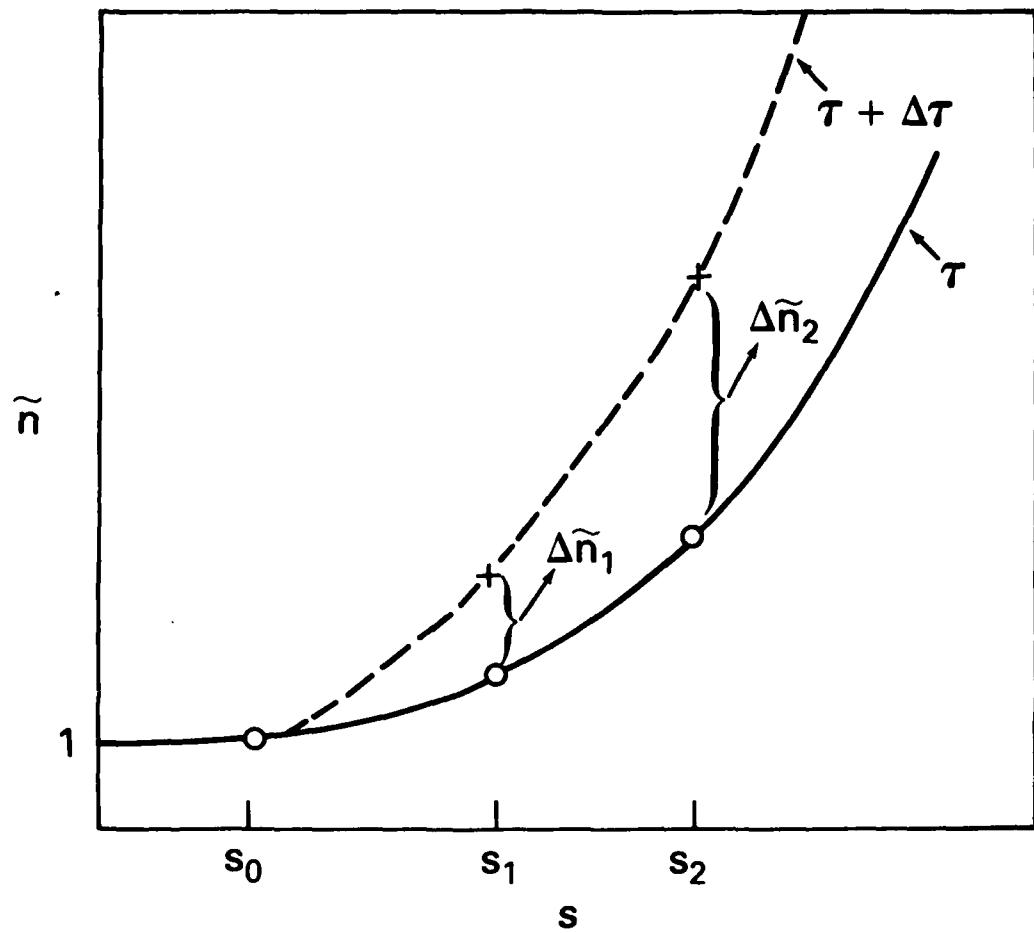


Fig. 3 — Schematic of \tilde{n} vs. s to show initial steepening of the density profile

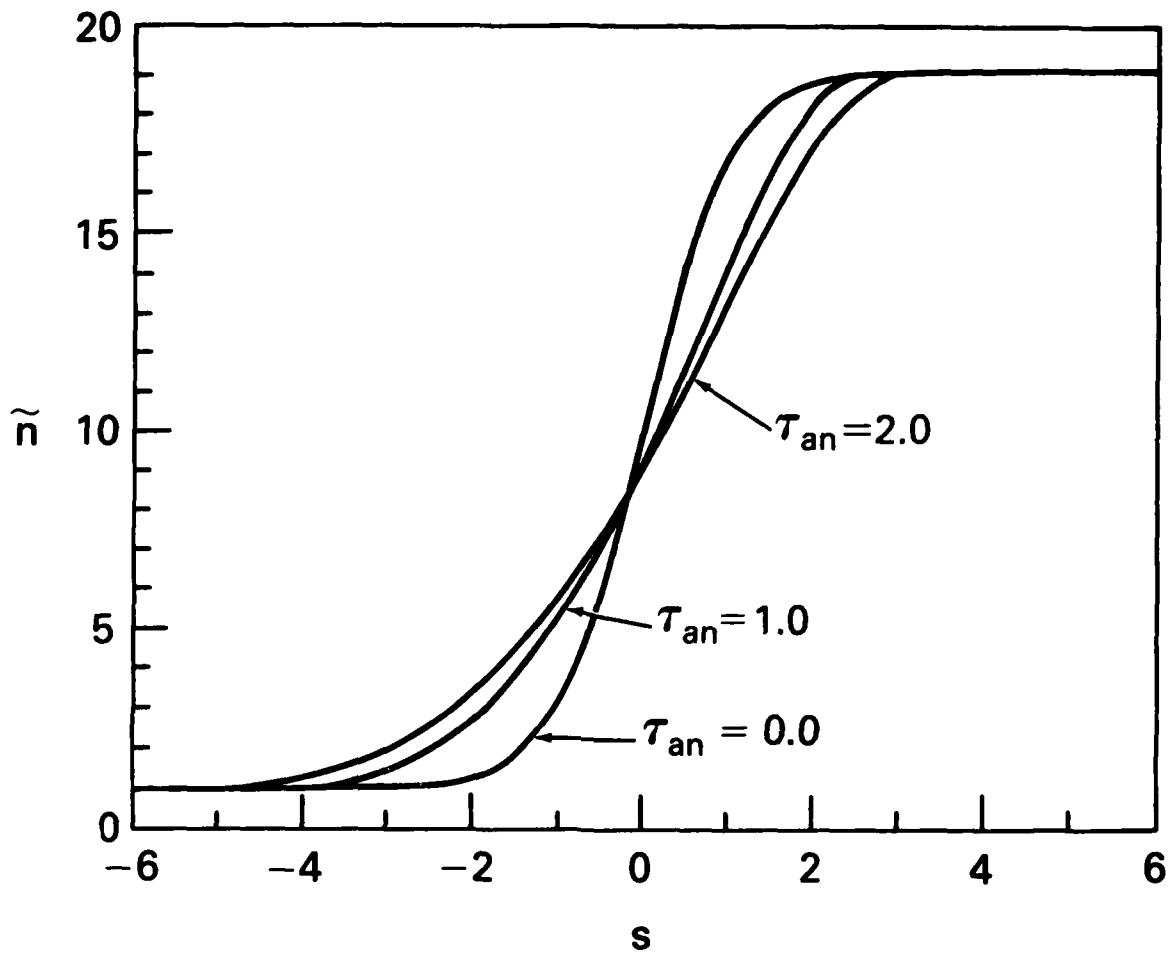


Fig. 4 — Anomalous diffusion process showing $\tilde{n}(s, \tau)$ vs. s for $\tau_{\text{an}} = 0.0, 1.0, 2.0$

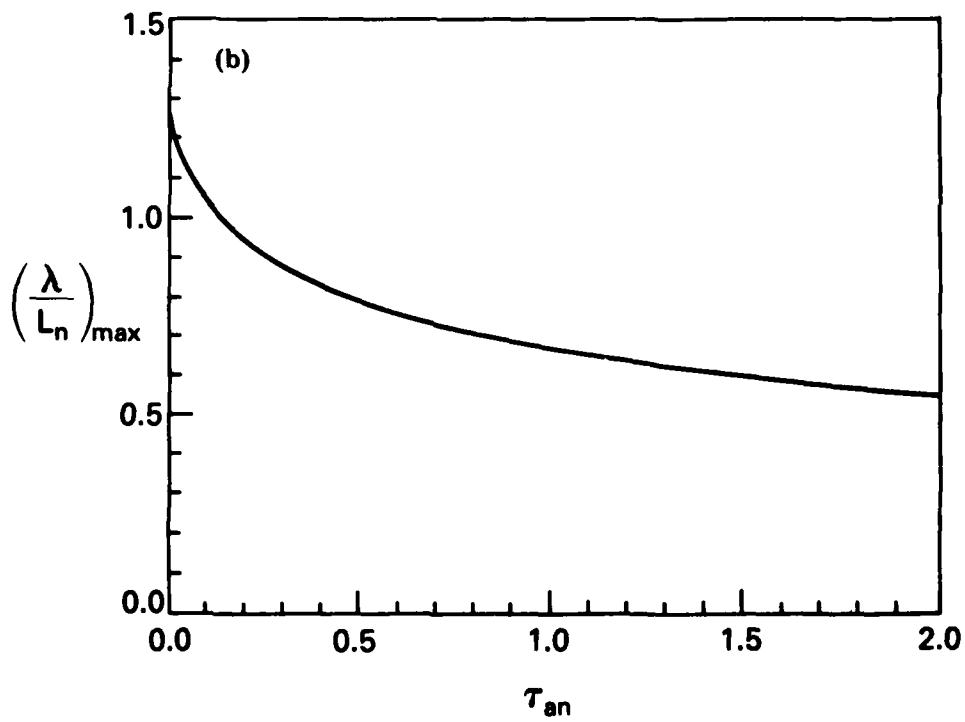
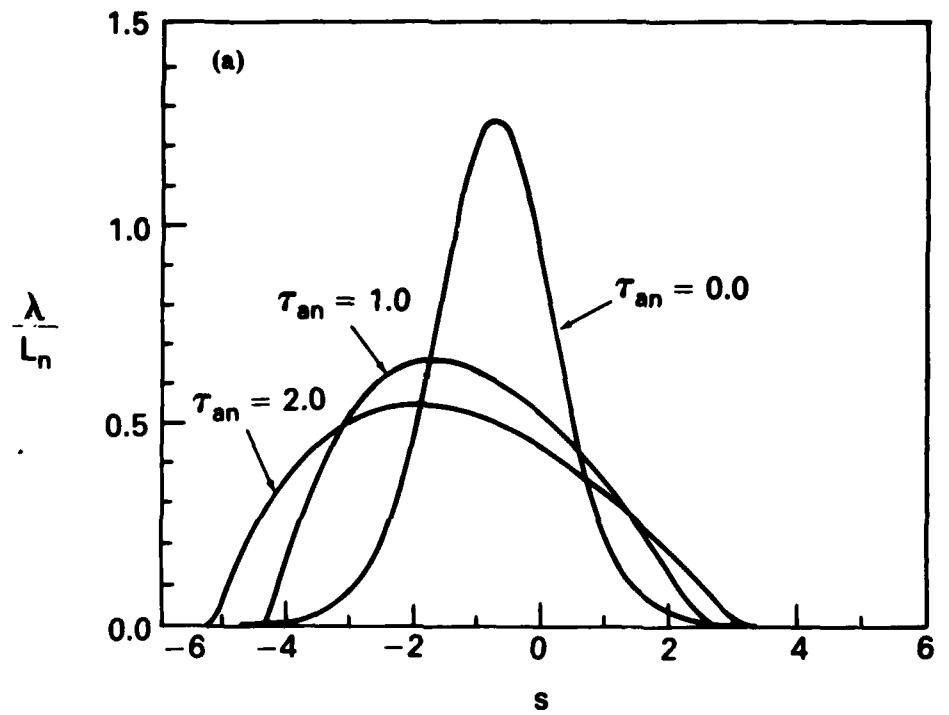


Fig. 5 — Spatial and temporal evolution of λ/L_n for an anomalous diffusion process.
 (a) Spatial evolution of λ/L_n vs. s . (b) Temporal evolution of $(\lambda/L_n)_{max}$.

TABLE 1. Classical and Anomalous Diffusion Time Scales
for Parameters Typical of Equatorial Spread F

CLASSICAL DIFFUSION

λ (m)	$\tau = 0.0$	$\tau = 0.2$		$\tau = 0.4$	
	L_n (m)	L_n (m)	t_{cl} (hrs)	L_n (m)	t_{cl} (hrs)
50	40	38	0.9	47	1.8
100	80	76	3.5	94	7.0
200	160	152	14.0	188	28.0
500	400	380	90.0	470	180.0

ANOMALOUS DIFFUSION

λ (m)	$\tau = 0.0$	$\tau = 1.0$		$\tau = 2.0$	
	L_n (m)	L_n (m)	t_{an} (min)	L_n (m)	t_{an} (min)
50	40	71	0.1	90	0.2
100	80	142	0.9	181	1.8
200	160	285	6.9	363	13.9
500	400	714	108.0	909	216.0

APPENDIX

We present similarity solutions to the nonlinear classical and anomalous diffusion equations (Eqs. (10) and (11)).

1. Classical Diffusion

The classical diffusion equation, i.e., based on the Coulomb electron-ion collision frequency, has received considerable attention. A variety of similarity solutions exist depending upon the initial conditions and the boundary conditions.

One solution is given in Longmire (1963).

We consider the equation (which is (14) recast)

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial \tau} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{n}^2}{\partial s^2} \quad (A1)$$

and search for solutions of the form

$$\tilde{n} = \tau^a \tilde{n}^a (s/\tau^b) \quad (A2)$$

where a and b are constants. Defining a new variable

$$\xi \equiv s/\tau^b \quad (A3)$$

and substituting Eqs. (A2) and (A3) into Eq. (A1) yields

$$a \tau^{a-1} \tilde{n}^a(\xi) - b \tau^{a-1} \xi \frac{\partial \tilde{n}^a}{\partial \xi} = \frac{1}{2} \tau^{2a-2b} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{n}^a}{\partial \xi^2} \quad (A4)$$

We require

$$a = 2b - 1 \quad (A5)$$

so that the powers of t cancel. In order to determine a and b we impose the added condition that the plasma can diffuse freely (i.e., $\int \tilde{n} ds = \text{constant}$), This leads to the requirement that

$$a + b = 0 \quad (\text{A6})$$

Thus, from Eqs. (A5) and (A6) we obtain

$$a = -1/3; \quad b = 1/3 \quad (\text{A7})$$

and Eq. (A4) becomes

$$-\frac{1}{3} \tilde{n}(\xi) - \frac{1}{3} \xi \frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial \xi} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{n}}{\partial \xi^2}. \quad (\text{A8})$$

The solutions of Eq. (A8) require \tilde{n} vanish at some point so that the plasma occupies a finite region at any time. We choose $s = \pm s_o$ (the vanishing point) at $\tau = \tau_o$. The density is then given by

$$\tilde{n}(s, \tau) = \frac{s_o^2}{6\tau_o^{2/3} \tau^{1/3}} \left[1 - \left(\frac{s}{s_o} \right)^2 \left(\frac{\tau_o}{\tau} \right)^{2/3} \right] \quad (\text{A9})$$

Note that if the initial density at the origin is $\tilde{n}_o = 1$ and the initial scale length is $s_o = 1$ ($x \sim \lambda$), the time it takes for the scale length to double is

$$\Delta \tau_{cl} \sim \frac{7}{6} \quad (\text{A10})$$

or

$$\Delta \tau_{cl} \sim \frac{7}{6} \frac{\lambda^2}{\rho_{es}^2} \frac{1}{v_{cl}^o} \quad (\text{A11})$$

which is comparable to the numerical results. It is important to recognize a major difference between the similarity solution Eq. (A9) and the ionospheric problem. Equation (A9) considers the diffusion of a density enhancement as opposed to a density depletion which occurs in the ionosphere. One difference is the initial steepening of the density profile for a depletion. This effect does not occur for an enhancement. However, the asymptotic solutions of both problems yield comparable time scales.

2. Anomalous Diffusion

We consider the equation

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial \tau} = \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(\begin{vmatrix} \frac{1}{n} & \frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial s} \\ \frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial \tilde{n}}{\partial s} \end{vmatrix} \right) \quad (A12)$$

and look for solutions of the form

$$\tilde{n} = 1 - \delta \exp(-\psi(x)) \quad (A13)$$

where $x = s^a/\tau^b$ and $0 < \delta < 1$ substituting Eq. (A13) into Eq. (A12), we find $a = 3$ and $b = 1$ where $\psi(x)$ satisfies the nonlinear differential equation

$$x \left(\frac{d\psi}{dx} \right)^2 - \frac{4}{3} \frac{d\psi}{dx} - 2x \frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} = 1 \quad (A14)$$

For large x , the solution to Eq. (A14) is

$$\psi = x^{\frac{1}{2}} + O\left(\frac{1}{x^{\frac{1}{2}}}\right) \quad (A15)$$

or

$$\hat{n} = 1 - \delta \exp \left[- (s^3/\tau)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] \quad (A16)$$

This solution more closely resembles the ionospheric problem since it represents a density depletion being filled with plasma. Equation (A16) predicts that the scale length of the density sheath broadens at a rate proportional to $\tau_{an}^{1/3}$. This is slightly faster than the results shown in Figure 5 for $(\lambda/L_n)_{max}$ vs. τ_{an} which is not surprising owing to the approximations made in obtaining Eq. (A16).

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